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Volume 7 | December 1958 | Number 2

EDITORIAL BOARD 1958-59

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SALARY TIME IS HERE AGAIN

An Editorial

December is the month of salary briefs, and blessed is the Salary Committee Chairman who has his brief prepared before the deadline. The problem of preparing an adequate salary brief for submission to the Board of Governors is partly solved if one has relevant, up-to-date information available on salaries paid elsewhere. This we try to provide in the Bulletin. Fortunately for us, the report on "Salaries and Qualifications of Teachers in Universities and Colleges" from the Education Division of D.B.S. became available in early October, as announced in our last issue. This report is a very valuable one, and every Salary Committee Chairman should have a copy. However, all the information in the world will not of itself compose a winning brief; nor will a brief be a winner because it is logical, or makes a case for higher salaries on the grounds of decency, justice, or merely keeping ahead of the Russians. The point to keep in mind is the one John L. Lewis never forgot. "The Front Office," he said, "can't dig coal."

Committee of Enquiry

Crowe Case. The C.A.U.T. has set up a Committee of enquiry into the circumstances surrounding the dismissal of Professor Harry Crowe from the teaching staff of the United College, Winnipeg. The Committee consists of V. C. Fowke (Sask.), Chairman, and Bora Laskin (Toronto).

FREEDOM AND RESPONSIBILITY IN ACADEMIC LIFE

C. D. Darlington
Professor of Botany, Oxford University

The pursuit of learning or the advancement of knowledge must always present problems to those organising human societies. For new knowledge, and sometimes old learning if rediscovered or imported, is likely to conflict with the ideas of societies organised in ignorance of it. I want especially to consider these problems in relation to what we now call science. For science as a mode of enquiry is today the effective agent of change in knowledge. It is therefore (as I amongst others have explained before) most exposed to this conflict.

Now, one of the consequences of the growth of science is a transformation of the conditions under which scientific enquiry is itself carried out. There has been an evolution in the relations of science and society. This evolution has, of course, proceeded and will proceed at different rates among different peoples. In consequence entirely different steps are needed today for the improvement of academic life in different countries.

In order to make this clear I shall discuss certain large institutions and general processes and also certain small and detailed and apparently trivial examples.

The Royal Society.

When the Royal Society was founded its members agreed to take no part in matters outside the terms of reference given it by the King, its founder. A resolution to abjure politics and religion was necessary if the infant Society was not to be promptly smothered by the politicians and churchmen who governed the land, many of whom were suspicious enough of even the most limited enquiries. It was also necessary if the Society was indeed to fulfil its terms of reference that it should concentrate its discussion on the unexplored field that was allotted to it, a field that appeared to offer almost unlimited scope.

During the life of Newton the Royal Society did what it was asked to do and did all that its first hopeful members actually hoped for. It played a chief part in laying the foundations of modern science. The

work then done inside the Royal Society was (if our historians only knew!) more important than the work that was being done outside it. The fruits of this work are enjoyed (or, as some say, suffered) by us 250 years later. The chick that was then hatched by the watchful and all-covering hen has now grown nearly to maturity. And what do we find? It has grown to be a bird less wise, to be sure, than the old bird in the ways of the world, but greatly stronger. With its powerful talons it has no desire to rend its weaker mother. But it cannot and does not exactly fear her as it did. The relations of its infancy are not reversed but they are radically changed.

What are these relations? They are surely relations of partnership. It is a duty acceptable to the scientist to do what he can for the society to which he belongs; to contribute to the best of his power to its present and future well-being. How do a group of people in our society make such a contribution? Experience has shown that they join together to discuss this very problem. As a rule the problem takes the form of trying to advance the interests of the group. This seems a very odd way of serving society. But by a strange paradox it has been found that society as a whole prospers by the organisation and exertion in the most public manner of sectional interests. Private vices prove to be indeed public benefits. The pressure-group, as it is called, is a social necessity.

The reason for this is plain. Formally, that is constitutionally, what we call democratic societies are governed by way of local representatives. But localities have lost their coherence and local representation has lost its meaning in the industrial communities in which science is most advanced. It is consequently in process of being supplanted by a professional or trade representation which has kept its meaning; that is by a kind of informal and spontaneous syndicalism. The state is coming to rely on being told of the needs of all groups by their spontaneous representatives. And many place-representatives have adapted themselves to be interest representatives.

It is in these circumstances of needing to express interest, authority and power that scholars and scientists find themselves tied to a tradition, indeed a dogma, of no interest, no authority and no power. They feel that they are above having interests to represent; that their interests are indeed the interests of the whole community. This is not

far from the truth. But unfortunately no other section of the community can express these interests.

In Britain this is particularly so. The voice of the new learning, of science, is desperately needed. This is so for three main reasons: (i) the separation of science from politics at the foundation of the Royal Society (ii) the pace of scientific change arising largely from specialised activities connected with the Royal Society, and (iii) the widening gulf left by university education between the scientist and the non-scientist, a misfortune for which both are to blame.

This analysis of a critical situation, which exists also in other countries, suggests certain obvious remedies.

The freedom of science which was preserved at its beginning by its separation from the ordinary life, thoughts and discussions of society can now be preserved only by breaking down this separation. How is this to be done?

The two important levels I believe are the great academies like the Royal Society and the Universities. The academies must devote some of their time and interest to the problems of the societies in which they live. If they are not prepared to discuss and advise on such matters as education, population and administration, even from the point of view of their own immediate self-interest, they and also the communities to which they belong will suffer. It is, no doubt, a bad thing to have the strength of a giant and to use it tyrannously. But it is also a bad thing to have the strength of a giant and to pretend you are still an infant in arms.

British and German Universities.

Among universities it is worth contrasting briefly two types of systems which have for limited periods been successful in different countries, namely Oxford and Cambridge in England and those German Universities which were left after the cleaning up operations of the Napoleonic wars.

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge are often thought to be self-governing institutions. Their freedom, however, has been curtailed and its curtailment resisted in different ways at different times. After the Revolution of 1688 they were merely not allowed to employ as teachers or admit as pupils Catholics, dissenters, atheists,

Jews or married men. They suffered the same kinds of disabilities that we now regard as disgraceful in Catholic and Communist countries. Otherwise it seems they were left to their own devices and emoluments in entire freedom with the results which Gibbon has described, 'steeped in port and prejudice' neglecting their statutes, their studies and their students.

In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, on the other hand, Oxford and Cambridge have been subjected to repeated interference and lived continually under the threat or the shock of it. Apart from minor interference, Royal Commissions have led to government action radically reforming the two universities on many occasions in the last century: the four chief Acts being in 1854, 1871, 1878 and 1926.

Several circumstances should be noted in this beating down of the old universities' privileges. First, it began long before the state contributed to the cost of their upkeep, deriving indeed from the example of Henry VIII. Secondly, it was men who had studied in these universities but who had had experience in the world outside, who returned to reform them. Thirdly, the reforms were always opposed tooth and nail and later evaded. Lastly, these reforms were not utterly different from those instituted by the foundation of new colleges at the end of the Middle Ages. And without them the universities would have fallen below the level of the medieval establishments that they replaced. As a result of this regimentation, on the other hand, they have risen to a higher level than they ever attained in the time of freedom.

To understand these things we must consider the colleges of which Oxford and Cambridge are composed. They demonstrated a century ago the consequences of self-determination in academic institutions when carried to the greatest lengths. Self-determination had meant self-propagation also. It had entailed a genetic continuity which was freed from the control of the environment. No adaptation was necessary. Evolution ceased. Each branch of learning preserved its own inviolable doctrine as the Ark of the Covenant of the Lord. And if even today in Oxford we have more professors of theology than of biology, their numbers reflect not our present needs but the frozen interests of four ancestral centuries. The operation of a dead-hand has been mitigated only by the interference of a live state, an interference which will no

doubt be repeatedly needed in the future to lift the academic wagon out of its rut.

In the election of professors in all universities, we see the self-determining and self-propagating principle acting in a smaller field inside subjects. To avoid delay in the admission of newer types of knowledge which this self-determination entails, electors are sometimes systematically chosen outside the subject. This safeguard, however, may also break down: its working depends on the general level of education and intelligence of the people concerned. In one case where it worked badly the results were so momentous that the causes are worth identifying.

When the chair of physics at Oxford fell vacant in 1865 two candidates offered themselves: Hermann von Helmholtz, a notable German physicist, and Robert Clifton, an agreeable young mathematician with a gift for making instruments and a considerable estate in Lincolnshire. Of the electors two were divines, who were not perhaps greatly interested in science, and three were scientists who were certainly not interested in experiment. They elected Clifton. The new professor lived to a great age and for just fifty years he was successful in forbidding all new physical experiments in the Clarendon Laboratory. (c.f. *Nature* 107, p. 18: 1921). Six years later, in that significant year 1871, Helmholtz became professor of physics in Berlin. He proved to be one of the great influences in the development of science, an influence stretching beyond his own country and beyond his own time.

The action of a small committee of electors, who little knew what they were doing, thus had a powerful influence on the development of the physical sciences both in Britain and in Germany and consequently on the course of the great wars of our own century. Two Royal Commissions which altered the face of Oxford came in the following decade. But the resistance of the colleges to new departments of knowledge and especially to science continues today. Still, today, colleges in Oxford, some of which include no scientists on their governing body, exclusively control admission of science students to the university.

For the other side of this picture we may turn to what is perhaps the most notable educational foundation in Britain, Trinity College, Cambridge. This college is administered under a head appointed by the Crown, that is by the government. Considering the masters

appointed I find it hard to doubt that it is to this condition, which distinguishes Trinity College from other foundations in Oxford and Cambridge, that it partly owes its intellectual achievements. And this condition is again an absence of self-government, a limitation of freedom.

The German universities came to their great period of achievement under the Empire, between 1871 and 1914. If we say that they were state universities, often under the control of princes, we may suggest a misleading impression. The academic community was gratified with its social status, its prosperity and such intelligent institutions as the *einjähriger* system. So far as enquiry was concerned they were given freedom so long as they did not oppose the interests or prejudices of the governing class. They were thus in the same position that the Royal Society had enjoyed two hundred years earlier. So far as government was concerned they ran in the same rut of self-determination as Oxford and Cambridge: they became a paradise for professors.

The consequences of this situation were, as I see it, wonderfully good for a short term, appallingly bad for a long term. The universities prospered. The intellectual energies of the nation were concentrated on specialised forms of learning, with immense success. But the development of German imperial policy went without the criticism of an intellectual community, most of whom had been put in blinkers .The achievements of the German academic community, instead of educating and restraining their governing class, gave them confidence. And when the time came in 1914, it also gave them unrestricted power to exploit German science.

The lesson I should like to draw from this contrast is that two opposed systems of university administration, in Britain and Germany, both led to disasters. But the disasters followed from the characters of the people concerned, rather than from a lack of suitable constitutional forms.

Lay Governors.

The history of Oxford and Cambridge indicates the great value that can come from lay interference in academic affairs. It shows that such interference is indispensable. But it must be at intervals, neither too frequent nor too infrequent, and it must be under most responsible and most public authority. It will then concern principles and institu-

tions rather than personalities and programmes. The same lesson is learnt from the contrast in management, for example, between the Kaiser Wilhelm Institutes founded in Germany in the period beginning in 1912 and the numerous organisations conceived in Britain by a body known as the Charity Commissioners during a somewhat longer period.

Although the funds of the Kaiser Wilhelm (now Max Planck) Institutes came and still come from industry, the German industrialist, being better educated than those of most other countries, does not interfere in their management. Corresponding institutes in Britain, however, when founded by private funds, are often provided with governing bodies elaborately designed by the Charity Commissioners of former times. Their object was to balance the talents and interests of the governors; technique against culture, professional against amateur. With the passage of time, however, bodies nominating the governors have often changed their character and interests. The professionals turn out to be specialists who often find the work outside their interests or experience; the amateurs turn out to be business men who more and more come to represent pressure groups organised for bargaining on prices and wages. In these circumstances, with great public funds being applied to enlarge and assist private foundations, two kinds of abuse can, and in agricultural research, do ensue: there is an intellectual abuse and a purely sordid abuse.

The intellectual abuse consists in directing research towards the ends of commercial interest to the individual governors. These persons, unused to academic standards, find it natural to treat the public business as though it were their own business and they find it natural to treat scientists as though they were employees of their companies. As Ashby says, in connection with the Universities, 'by their very composition, finance committees are liable to act as though they were boards of directors.' Or, worse still, we may say as organisers of commercial pressure groups.

The sordid abuse goes a little further on the same path. It means interfering with the public enjoyment of results so that the individuals concerned can enjoy a little (as they consider) well-earned priority over the public. Here again the business man who administers research is behaving as though he were a member of a board of directors of a commercial company whose rules of behaviour are not those suitable either for research or for public administration.

The administration of academic institutions by laymen should, therefore, be scrutinised. And systems of administration established for private funds should not be allowed to continue without check when, as now always happens, the funds are enormously increased by state contributions.

Conclusion.

I conclude that, though freedom from political interference and corruption seems to demand self-determination, when this has been gained we still want freedom from incompetence and stagnation. And in the long run this is not compatible with self-determination. We have to go back to interference; but it is a limited and discontinuous interference and it is interference by organisations and authorities which it has been our responsibility to educate. There must always be the means of interaction between the scholar or scientist and the layman, if the community is to keep sound. Each must interfere with the other. How is this to be done?

It demands two things: education of the public in regard to learning, and education of the learned world in regard to the public. Both these are the duties of the universities. At the present time the universities nowhere in the world give their students any notion of the state of human knowledge as a whole and as it is today. There used to be a subject taught in the universities, called philosophy, which attempted to do something like this. The attempt has for some time been abandoned. It has been abandoned on account of the vast amount of dead knowledge, technical lumber and sounding jargon with which most branches of learning, arts as well as sciences, have cluttered up their academic curricula.

Why not, once again, attempt to teach the art or science of knowing? Because, undoubtedly, to attempt it we must first persuade the arts and the sciences that each may safely dilute its own doctrinal wine with the water of unbelief. That will be a feat of persuasion only to be undertaken by an outside force, by yet another encroachment on our freedom of determination.

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Extracts from the Report of the CAUT Salary Committee

An adequate scale of salaries for University teachers must ensure that the financial attractions of a university career are as great as those in alternative careers normally open to individuals with the type of training and level of ability that university teaching requires. A lower scale means that able college graduates tend to enter other fields in preference to teaching and that even experienced teachers will leave the universities. It also means that universities cannot lay claim to the full time of their personnel, and that a high proportion of the teacher's energies are devoted (where the opportunity exists) to consulting, contract work, and other non-academic activity, even when such activity does not help to raise the standards of teaching and research.

We propose to examine some of the scattered evidence available on earnings in alternative professions and on earning trends, and to suggest a scale that makes sense in the light of this evidence, without being linked to it by a rigid formula. In all professions earnings tend to increase with increasing age and experience. In examining earnings in other professions, therefore, it is useful to choose experience levels similar to those typical of the various academic ranks.

Evidence on the years of experience typical for each rank in the Canadian universities is available from the new DBS survey of Salaries and Qualifications of Teachers in Universities and Colleges. Median years since first degree for each rank and region are shown in Table 1 below. Average years since first degree range from eight for lecturers through eleven and seventeen for Assistant and Associate Professors to 26.5 for full professors.

TABLE I

Median Years since first degree (1956-57)

	Canada	*Atlantic*	*Quebec*	*Ontario*	*West*
Deans	31	25	32	31	31.5
Professors	26.5	24	27	27	25
Associate Professors	17	12.5	18	19	16.5
Assistant Professors	11	8	11	13	10
Lecturers & Instructors	8	10	9	7	7
All Ranks	16	15	17	17	15

Source: D.B.S. Salaries & Qualifications of Teachers in Universities and Colleges 1956-57.

One of the most comprehensive annual surveys of Professional salaries is that of the Association of Professional Engineers of the Province of Ontario. Table 2 shows the earnings of Ontario engineers for years since graduation equivalent to the various academic ranks.

TABLE 2

Earnings of Engineers in Ontario At Levels of Experience Equivalent to Academic Ranks, 1957

Academic Rank	*Corresponding Years Since Graduation*	*Earnings[a] of Ontario Engineers, Averages for specified years since Graduation*		
		Median	*Upper Quartile*	*Upper Decile*
		(thousands of dollars)		
Professor	26-27	9.9	14.0	19.9
Assoc. Prof.	16-18	9.3	11.2	14.7
Assit. Prof.	10-12	8.3	9.5	11.5
Lect. & Inst.	7-9	7.6	8.5	10.1

a Salary plus bonus and commission, excludes fees

Source: First column based on Table 1;
Other data: *The Professional Engineer,* Feb. 1958 P. 4, Chart I.

Median salaries of the less experienced engineers are several thousands of dollars above the current (1957-1958) level of academic salaries for equivalent years since first degree, but at the higher levels the difference is much smaller. In comparing engineers' salaries with those of university personnel it must be remembered, however, that an adequately trained university teacher requires at least three or four years of graduate study, while this is not a normal requirement for an engineer employed in private industry. Moreover, it would be generally agreed that academic work should attract the better-than-average college graduates. In view of these considerations the upper quartile earnings of engineers are probably a more realistic standard for an academic salary scale than the medians. This consideration suggests that the median salaries for 1957-8 for University teachers should be at least $14,000 for Professors, $11,200 for Associate Professors, $9,500 for Assistant Professors and $8,500 for Lecturers and Instructors. Higher average rates than these would be required in 1958-9 and subsequent years as the rates of pay in alternative occupations continue to rise.

In appraising salaries of University teachers another question is often asked: what levels of remuneration would now be required to achieve for University teachers the same relative income position in the community at large as they occupied earlier? This question has been answered for the CAUT in a number of previous studies[1], all of which have shown a substantial deterioration in the relative income position of University teachers since the late 1930's. The question is reopened here in order to bring the calculations up to date and to amend them in one or two respects.

While it would be desirable to make a number of comparisons of the current and past relative income position of University teachers, the available data permits a reasonably accurate comparison only as far back as the late 1930's. Thus the base years selected are 1937-9 inclusive. During this period the average income for the community as a whole may be measured by the national income per employed member of the labour force[2]; this was $981[3] per year. This average was unusually low because of the short time worked and underemployment of many people; a rough adjustment[4] for this factor suggests that the 'normal' 1937-9 income of employed members of the labour force would have been about 22.8 per cent higher, or $1205.

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[1]K.A.H. Buckley, "The Economic Status of University Teachers", paper presented to the Conference of the NCCU, 1955; *The University Teacher and the Crisis of Higher Education,* brief of the CAUT to the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects.

[2]Military pay and allowances have been excluded from the national income and the labour force is limited to employed civilian persons.

[3]National Income, Military Pay and Allowances and Employed Civilian Labour Force from D.B.S., *National Accounts, Income and Expenditure,* 1926-1956.

[4]It was assumed that a generous allowance for the underemployment would be made by allowing for the difference between average weeks per year worked in the late 1930's and under full employment conditions. Census data is available for 1931, 1941 and 1951 and this was used. The census data shows that the average weeks of work per year for wage earners in the year up to June 1, 1931 and for the year up to June 1, 1941 was 41.4 weeks, and this mean was taken as a rough estimate of the average work week in the late 1930's. In 1951, the median weeks of work per year for reporting wage earners was 50.85, and the mean average in 1921 (a year of some unemployment) was 46 weeks. To make a rough correction for the underemployment in the late 1930's, the national income per employed member of the labour force was multiplied by:

$$\frac{(\textit{median weeks worked by wage earners in } 1951)}{(\textit{mean weeks worked by wage-earners in } 1931 \ \& \ 1941)}$$

By 1957 the equivalent measure of average income of the community at large had reached $4,004, or 3.33 times the 1937-9 average.

The average University salaries in 1938 in the various academic ranks[5] are shown in column (1) of the Table below. Column (2) shows what they would have been in 1957-8 if they had the same relationship to the average income of the community then as in 1937-9. Column (3) shows the estimated median salaries actually paid in 1957-8.

TABLE 3

Median University Salaries—Actual 1938, Hypothetical 1957-8 Level to achieve same Relative Income Position as in 1937-9, and Actual 1957-8

Rank	*Actual* 1938	*To achieve* 1938 *Parity in* 1957-8	*Actual* 1957-8	*Actual as % of Parity*
Dean	5,090	16,950	11,580	68%
Professor	4,450	14,820	9,090	61%
Assoc. Prof.	3,476	11,580	7,210	62%
Asst. Prof.	2,727	9,080	5,890	65%
Instr. & Lect.	Inadequate Information		4,620	

It is clear that even after rather generous allowances have been made for the unemployment and underemployment in the late 1930's, there has been a substantial deterioration in the relative income position of University teachers. To make the comparison strictly accurate the income of University professors from property should be added to University salaries in all periods; this cannot be done because of inadequate data. However, it is inconceivable that the property income of University teachers would have increased so rapidly as to significantly alter our conclusions.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Not quite two years ago the CAUT adopted the goal of a national minimum salary scale for University teachers in Canada of:

Professors	$14,000
Assoc. Prof.	11,000
Asst. Prof.	8,000
Lecturers	6,000

[5]C.A.U.T. *Bulletin,* December, 1956, p. 15.

The CAUT reaffirms this national minimum scale and recommends that it be treated as a realistic goal for attainment in the next two years.

This decision is based on the following considerations:

1. The first part of this report indicates that a scale such as this is required to attract and hold the full-time activities of high qualiy university teachers in the face of alternative opportunities.

2. The second part of this report indicates that the recommended scale is required to restore University teachers to the relative income position which they had in the community prior to the war. Some rough calculations based on the scale of pay in the University of Saskatchewan in 1926 suggest that the recommended minimum scale would also achieve the same relative income position as they enjoyed in the 1920's.

3. In view of the time involved in substantially increasing the supply of University teachers and the requirements for larger University staffs, it is very important that higher salaries for University teachers be attained in the shortest possible time.

D. W. Slater and G. Rosenbluth

Supplementary Retirement Annuites at Queen's University

At the spring meeting of the Board of Trustees of Queen's University, the Board approved in principle a system of supplementary retirement annuities for members of faculty in respect of service before September, 1957. The details of the scheme are still being worked out, but the general principles have been communicated to the faculty members. The arrangement is that a faculty member will receive for each year of service up to 1957, a supplementary single-life annuity equal to one-quarter of one per cent of the average salary of the five years before retirement excluding any year before 1957-58 (new salary scale). For example, a member of staff retiring at some time in the future, but who has had twenty years' service before September, 1957, will have his regular annuity supplemented by five per cent of his salary on retirement. The university estimates that to make this limited provision will require a capital sum of more than $800,000. The Board also asked that it be given the opportunity to review the pension position of each member of faculty at the time of retirement.

SCHEDULE OF MINIMUM SALARIES IN CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES & COLLEGES 1958-59

(Arranged in order of the average salary for the top three grades)

No.	*University*	*Prof.*	*Associate*	*Assistant*	*Lecturer*
1	Toronto	11,200	8,500	6,600	5,100
2	Queen's	10,500	8,200	6,400	4,600
3	Western	10,000	8,000	6,500	5,000
4	Saskatchewan	9,700	7,700	6,100	4,500
5	Carleton	9,000	8,000	6,000	3,500
6	U.B.C.	9,000	7,500	6,500	4,500
7	Alberta	9,000	7,500	6,000	5,100
8	McMaster	9,000	7,200	5,700	4,500
9	Manitoba	8,800	7,200	5,700	—
10	Assumption	9,000	7,000	5,400	—
11	Waterloo	8,000	6,750	5,500	4,250
12	Victoria (B.C.)	8,200	6,700	5,300	4,300
13	Memorial	8,000	6,500	5,400	4,200
14	OAC	7,800	6,600	5,500	4,600
15	OVC	7,800	6,600	5,500	4,600
16	Sir George Williams	8,300	6,500	5,000	4,600
17	UNB	8,000	6,400	5,200	3,500
18	Brandon	7,500	6,600	5,400	—
19	Dalhousie	8,000	6,500	5,000	3,500
20	McGill	8,000	6,500	5,000	3,500
21	Montreal	8,000	6,500	5,000	—
22	Ottawa	7,000	6,000	5,000	4,000
23	United	7,000	6,000	5,000	4,500
24	Bishop's	6,500	5,500	4,600	3,600
25	Mount Alison	6,000	5,500	4,500	2,500
26	St. Francis Xavier (A)	6,050	5,100	4,200	4,100
27	Acadia	5,000	4,000	3,300	2,800

(a) A summer supplement is paid for research, summer school etc.

MEDIAN SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES IN 1957-58

The median salary of teachers in universities and colleges rose 14.3% to $6,598 between 1956-57 and 1957-58 D.B.S. statistics show. The median is highest in Ontario — $6,893 — and only slightly lower in the West at $6,804. Quebec is 6.2% below Ontario with $6,463, and the Maritimes 21.3% lower with a median of $5,425. The percentage increase in median salary in 1957-58 was greatest in Ontario — 16.2% — and least in the Atlantic Provinces where it was 12.4%. For Canada as a whole, percentage increases were greater in the higher academic ranks than in the lower.

These figures and those in the table below are from the D.B.S. survey of 54 universities and colleges covering basic salary rates as of November 1, 1957 for 123 deans, 1,144 professors, 1,023 associate professors, 1,257 assistant professors, 58 ungraded professors and 778 lecturers and instructors, or a total of 4,383 teachers.

Median Salaries of Teachers in Universities and Colleges, by rank and region, 1957-58, showing percentage increase over 1956-57

Region	*Deans*	*Profs.*	*Assoc. Profs.*	*Asst. Profs*	*Profs Ungraded*	*Lects & Instrs.*	*All ranks*	*No. reported*
Atlantic Provinces	$7,714	$6,774	$5.778	$4,991	[1]	$3,800	$5,425	452
— increase	8.3%	14.0%	15.0%	11.6%		8,6%	12.4%	
Quebec	10,375	8,561	6.875	5.708	$5,115	4,438	6,463	985
— increase	15.3%	17.5%	10.7%	17.4%	18.0%	8.6%	14.0%	
Ontario	13,250	9,774	7,562	6,136	—	4.788	6,893	1,660
— increase	17.8%	15.9%	15.4%	12.9%		13.0%	16.2%	
Western Provinces	11,125	8,935	7,186	5,824	—	4,652	6,804	1,286
— increase	15.5%	11.4%	14.4%	10.4%		9.8%	13.7%	
Canada	10,810	9,051	7,162	5,822	4,895[2]	4,628	6,598	4,383
— increase	14.1%	13.5%	14.2%	11.9%	19.1%	10.6%	14.3%	

[1]. Median not calculated: number too small. [2]. Number reported only 58.

Source: D.B.S., *Daily Bulletin,* Vol. 27, No. 68, April 9, 1958.

Median Salaries of Teachers in Universities and Colleges, by rank and field, 1957-58, showing percentage increase over 1956-57

Field	*Deans*	*Profs*	*Assoc. Profs*	*Asst. Profs.*	*Profs, Ungraded*	*Lects & Instrs.*	*All ranks*	*No. Reported*
Faculty administration	$10,810	[1]	[1]	—	—	—	$10,724	130
— increase	14.1%						14.1%	
Humanities	—	$8,688	$7,056	$5,646	$4,938	$4,518	5,954	850
— increase		11.9%	12.6%	11.9%	32.5%	14.0%	11.3%	
Social sciences	—	8,917	7,112	5.725	5,625	4,679	6,387	1,060
— increase		13.0%	13.8%	12.9%	(3.2%)[2]	9.1%	14.3%	
Biological scieences	—	9,582	7,453	6,176	[1]	4,687	7,122	995
— increase		15.5%	14.5%	13.6%		11.2%	15.1%	
Physical sciences	—	8,918	7,038	5,819	4,500	4,682	6,540	1,348
— increase		14.0%	15.3%	13.0%	10.8%	10.5%	14.4%	
All fields	$10,810	9,051	7,162	5,822	4,895[3]	4,628	6,598	4,383
— increase	14.1%	13.5%	14.2%	11.9%	19.1%	10.6%	14.3%	

[1]. Median not calculated: number too small. [2]. Decrease. [3]. Number reported only 58.

Source: D.B.S., *Daily Bulletin,* Vol. 27, No. 68, April 9, 1958.

As in 1956-57, highest median salary was paid to teachers (deans omitted) of the biological sciences, including medicine, at $7,122. This was followed by the physical sciences at $6,540, the social sciences $6,387, and the humanities $5,954. The percentage increase in the median salary in 1957-58 was greatest in the biological sciences (15.1%) and least in the humanities (11.3%).

A.A.U.P. REPORT ON THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE PROFESSION

D. C. Murdoch

The American Association of University Professors (AAUP), through its Committee Z (on the economic status of the profession) and its various subcommittees, has become very active during the past year on the question of faculty salaries and other matters of economic interest. There is every likelihood that the next appointment to the professional staff of the Association will be an economist who will devote the major portion of his time in the Washington office to the campaign for increased faculty salaries and related matters. The initial steps in this campaign have already been taken. At its meeting in November, 1957 the Association approved a five-point policy statement on economic affairs proposed by Committee Z. This statement is published in full in the AAUP *Bulletin*, Vol. 44, No. 1A (Spring, 1958). In abbreviated form, the five points of policy are:

1. That the absolute highest priority in the use of available funds be given to raising faculty salaries, with the goal of doubling the average level within 5 to 10 years, with particular attention to increasing the spread between the bottom and the top of each institution's salary structure.

2. That administrative officers, governing boards, chapters of the Association or faculty committees of all institutions rate the minimum salaries prevailing in their institutions according to the following rating schedule:

Scales of Minimum Salaries in Institutions of Higher Education For 1958-59

Nine-Months' Basis, Specified Benefits Included

	AA	A	B	C	D	E	F
Professor	14000	12000	10000	8750	7500	6250	5250
Assoc. Prof.	10000	8750	7750	6750	6000	5250	4500
Asst. Prof.	7750	6750	6000	5250	4750	4250	3750
Instructor	6000	5000	4500	4000	3750	3500	3250

It is hoped that this rating plan will cause more information concerning pay scales to be made public and will stimulate those responsible to advance salary scales to those consistent with their aspirations. (There are at present institutions in the United States with salary scales in each of the categories A-F, but none have yet achieved the AA scale.)

3. That long-range planning committees composed of faculty, or having faculty representation, be established in institutions now without them to deal with problems associated with expansion and maintenance of quality.

4. That where conditions justify this, regional conferences of professors be organized to coordinate the long-range plans of different institutions in a given geographical area.

5. That the following practices be followed in colleges and universities relative to the determination of faculty salaries:

(a) the preparation and announcement of a salary schedule,

(b) provision for a meaningful annual audit and fiscal report on operations, and

(c) provision for faculty consultation on the budget.

The salary scale rating scheme described in item 2 above, and the philosophy behind it, are described in detail in the AAUP *Bulletin,* Vol. 44, No. 1A (Spring, 1958), pp. 217-236, in the report of the subcommittee responsible for the scheme and in an explanatory article by Professor Fritz Machlup of the Johns Hopkins University. Briefly, the hope of the scheme's originators is to harness the forces of publicity and competition in an effort to achieve the stated aim of doubling average salaries in five to ten years. The issue of the Bulletin quoted above is devoted mainly to the economic status of the profession and contains a great deal of interesting material. It is highly recommended to all local salary committees at Canadian universities. Committee Z recognizes, of course, that most of the work of carrying out the program outlined in the above policy statement must be carried on by the individual chapters of the Association at the local level. To aid the chapters in this work, Committee Z has drawn up detailed suggestions for local action programs, and has distributed these to the chapters.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

October 23, 1958

Professor F. S. Howes, Editor,
The C.A.U.T. Bulletin,
Room 450 Dawson Hall,
McGill University,
Montreal, P.Q.

Dear Professor Howes:

The new McGill regulations on retirement which were published in the October Bulletin contain one very disturbing item. In Section (3) d. it is stated that the Standing Committee "... shall decide whether, from the point of view of the staff member's health and physical condition, it is in *his* best interest to continue on a full-time basis.". Surely a person who has reached 65 (and a professor at that) should be quite capable of deciding whether it is in *his* best interests to retire. This is not the business of the University or its Committee — they should confine themselves solely to the question of whether it is in the interest of the *University* that the professor should continue full-time work after 65. I trust that this bit of impertinence will not be copied by any other Universities.

I also find it difficult to understand why this Committee, which is apparently considered to be capable of assessing the ability of a staff member who is between 65 and 68, should not be able to assess the ability of staff members over 68.

Yours sincerely,

Edward D. Maher,
Professor of Business Administration
University of New Brunswick.

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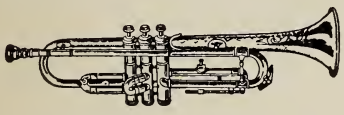

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